

Exploring Photorealistic Real-time Image Synthesis

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1. Introduction

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) are capable of generating high-quality images; however, the resolution of generated images remains relatively small. There were many efforts to address this issue. For example, ProGAN trains high-resolution GANs in the single-class setting by iteratively training across a set of increasing resolutions. Nevertheless, the model training is still unstable regardless of the large number of studies that have investigated and proposed improvements. Without auxiliary stabilization techniques, this training procedure is notoriously brittle, requiring finely-tuned hyperparameters and architectural choices to work at all. Most of the improvements have been made due to changes the objective function or constraining the discriminator model during the training. More recently, scaling up GAN models has been found to work pretty well for generating both high-quality and larger images.

The authors provide class information to the Generator with class-conditional BatchNorm, as seen in the image (sub-figure (a) and (b)) above, and to the Discriminator with projection. They also use Orthogonal Initialization instead of classic Xavier Initialization or $N(0, 0.02I)$. BatchNorm Statistics in G are computed across all devices instead of per-devices, which is a typical scenario. They note that progressive growing, as ProGAN, is unnecessary. Simply by increasing the batch size by a factor of 8 improved their performance, in terms of Inception Score (IS), by 46%. They explain it that it provides better gradients for both networks. Also, they achieved a better final performance in fewer iterations. They then increase number of channels, in CNNs, in each layer by 50% (meaning the number of parameters are almost doubled). It resulted in 21% improvement in terms of IS. Notice from the figure above that class embeddings are shared and they use separate linear layers to fit each BatchNorm layer. It reduces computation cost a lot and improves training speed by 37%. Notice the noise vector z is split into one chunk per ResBlock and concatenated with class embedding c . It gave a slight improvement of 4. Also, if you wonder what Non-local block is, here's is the diagram

2. Related Work

In the earlier I2I works [24], researchers used many aligned image pairs as the source domain and target domain to obtain the translation model that translates the source images to the desired target images. **Unsupervised I2I** Training supervised translation is not very practical because of the difficulty and high cost of acquiring these large, paired training data in many tasks. Taking photo-to-painting translation as an example (e.g., f. in Fig, it is almost impossible to collect massive amounts of labeled paintings that match the input landscapes. Hence, unsupervised methods [76, 27, 63] have gradually attracted more attention. In an unsupervised learning setting, I2I methods use two large but unpaired sets of training images to convert images between representations. **Semi-supervised I2I** In some special scenarios, we still need a little expensive human labeling or expert guidance, as well as abundant unlabeled data, such as those of old movie restoration [43] or genomics [52]. Therefore, researchers consider introducing semi-supervised learning [28, 48, 5] into I2I to further promote the performance of image translation. Semi-supervised I2I approaches leverage only source images alongside a few source-target aligned image pairs for training but can achieve more promoted translated results than their unsupervised counterpart. **Few-shot I2I** Nonetheless, several problems remain regarding translation using a supervised, unsupervised or semi-supervised I2I method with extremely limited data. In contrast, humans can learn from only one or limited exemplars to achieve remarkable learning results. As noted by meta-learning [73, 57] and few-shot learning [53, 58], humans can effectively use prior experiences and knowledge when learning new tasks, while artificial learners usually severely overfit without the necessary prior knowledge. Inspired by the human learning strategy, few- and one-shot I2I algorithms [38, 34, 35, 36] have been proposed to translate from very few (or even one) in the limit unpaired training examples of the source and target domains.

Although learning settings may differ, most of these I2I techniques tend to learn a deterministic one-to-one mapping and only generate single-modal output, as shown in Fig.. However, in practice, the two-domain I2I is inherently ambiguous, as one input image may correspond to

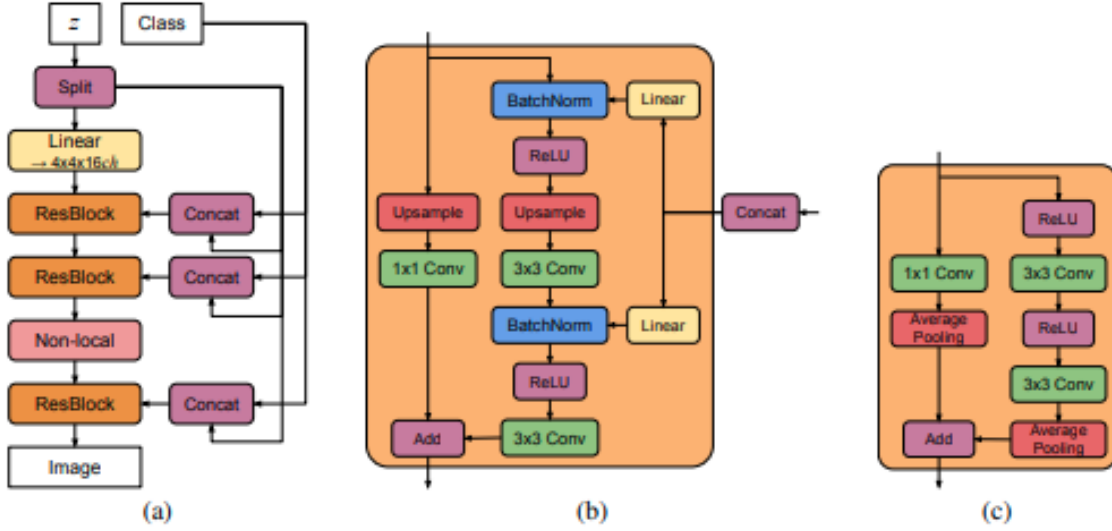


Figure 15: (a) A typical architectural layout for BigGAN’s **G**; details are in the following tables. (b) A Residual Block (*ResBlock up*) in BigGAN’s **G**. (c) A Residual Block (*ResBlock down*) in BigGAN’s **D**.

Figure 1.

multiple possible outputs, namely, multimodal outputs, as shown in Fig.. Multimodal I2I translates the input image from one domain to a distribution of potential outputs in the target domain while remaining faithful to the input. These diverse outputs represent different color or style texture themes (i.e., multimodal) but still preserve the similar semantic content as the input source image. Therefore, we actually view multimodal I2I as a special two-domain I2I and discuss it in supervised and unsupervised settings (subsection).

Most of computer visions problems can be seen as an image-to-image translation problem, mapping an image from one domain to another image in different domain. As an illustration, super-resolution can be viewed as a concern of mapping a low-resolution image to a similar high-resolution one; image colorization is a problem of mapping a gray-scale image to a corresponding color one. The problem can be investigated in supervised and unsupervised learning methods. In the supervised approaches, paired of images in various domains are available [24]. In the unsupervised models, only two separated sets of images are available in which one composed of images in one domain and the other composed of different domain images—there is no paired samples representing how an image can possibly translated to a corresponding image in different domain. For lack of corresponding images, the unsupervised image-to-image translation problem is considered more difficult, but it is more feasible because training data collection is easier.

When assessing the image translation problem from a likelihood viewpoint, the main challenge is to learn a mutual distribution of images in different domains. In the unsupervised setting, the two sets composed of images from two minor distributions of different domains, and the task is to gather the cooperative distribution by utilizing these images. However, driving the joint distribution from the minor distributions is extremely ill-posed problem. In this section, we discuss the image-to-image translation methods. Image-to-image translation is similar to style transfer, which as the input receives a style image and a content image. The model output is an image that has the content of the content image and the style of the style image. It is not only transferring the images’ styles, but also manipulates features of objects. This section lists several models that are proposed for image-to-image translation from supervised methods to unsupervised ones. Figure shows sample generate results by [24].

2.1. Supervised Translation

Isola et al. [24] proposed to merge the different network losses of Adversarial Network with L_1 regularization loss, therefore the particular generator not only trained to pass the discriminator filtering but also to produce images that contain realistic objects and similar to the ground-truth images. L_1 generates less blurry images as compared to L_2 , it was the reason for using L_1 . The conditional GAN loss is

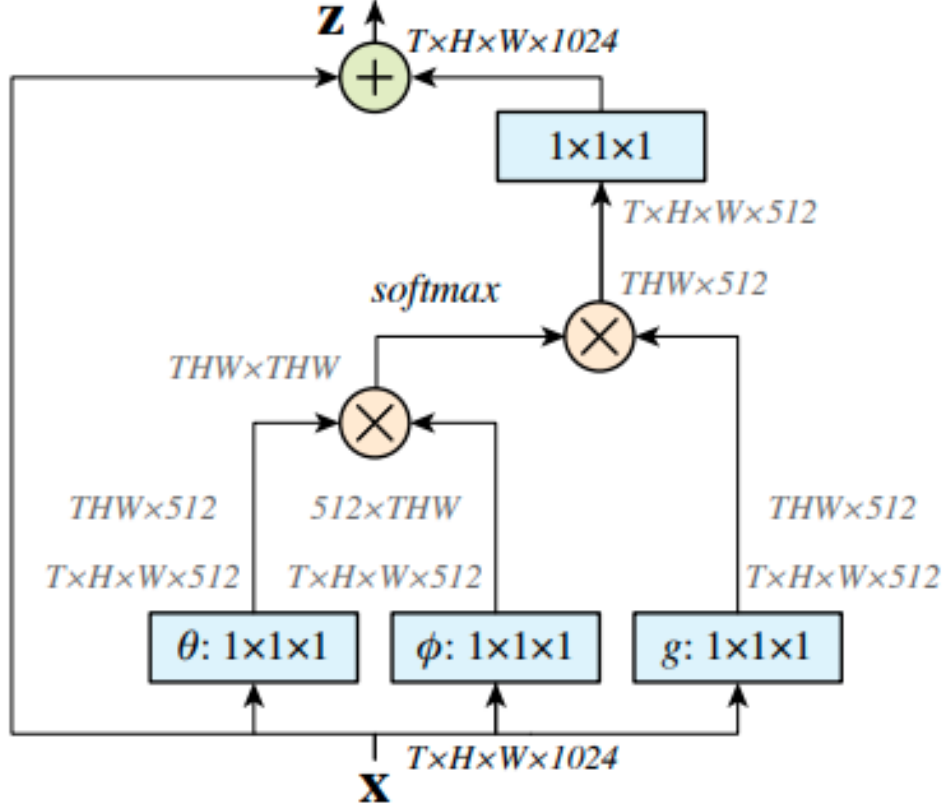


Figure 2. A spacetime **non-local block**. The feature maps are shown as the shape of their tensors, *e.g.*, $T \times H \times W \times 1024$ for 1024 channels (proper reshaping is performed when noted). “ \otimes ” denotes matrix multiplication, and “ \oplus ” denotes element-wise sum. The softmax operation is performed on each row. The blue boxes denote $1 \times 1 \times 1$ convolutions. Here we show the embedded Gaussian version, with a bottleneck of 512 channels. The vanilla Gaussian version can be done by removing θ and ϕ , and the dot-product version can be done by replacing softmax with scaling by $1/N$.

Figure 2.

formulated as:

$$\ell_{cGAN}(G, D) = E_{(x,y) \sim p_{data}(x,y)} [\log D(x, y)] + E_{x \sim p_{data}(x), z \sim p_z(z)} [\log(1 - D(x, G(x, z)))]. \quad (1)$$

in which $x, y \sim p(x, y)$ denotes to the images that have different styles but belong to the same scene, similar to the standard GAN [18], $z \sim p(z)$ represents random noise,

thereby L_1 loss for pressuring self-similarity is defined as:

$$\ell_{L_1}(G) = E_{x,y \sim p_{data}(x,y), z \sim p_z(z)} [\|y - G(x, z)\|_1], \quad (2)$$

the general objective is specified by:

$$G^*, D^* = \arg \min_G \max_D \ell_{cGAN}(G, D) + \lambda \ell_{L_1}(G) \quad (3)$$



Figure 2: (a) The effects of increasing truncation. From left to right, the threshold is set to 2, 1, 0.5, 0.04. (b) Saturation artifacts from applying truncation to a poorly conditioned model.

Figure 3.

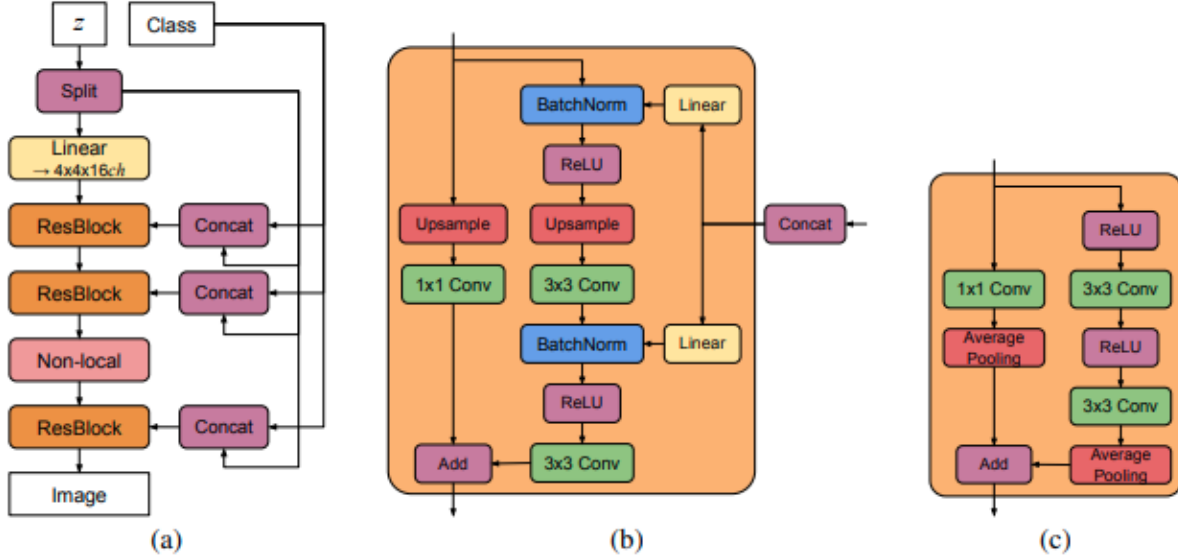


Figure 15: (a) A typical architectural layout for BigGAN's G ; details are in the following tables. (b) A Residual Block (*ResBlock up*) in BigGAN's G . (c) A Residual Block (*ResBlock down*) in BigGAN's D .

Figure 4.

in which the hyperparameter of λ is used to balance the two loss functions. Moreover, in [24], the authors pointed out that, the noise z does not have noticeable influence on the result, therefore, they proposed to use the noise in the form of dropout during training and test in place of samples that belongs to random distribution. In this model, the structure of the G is based on the new structure of U-Net that has multi-scale connections to join each encoder layer to the same layer decoder for sharing low-level information like edges of objects. In [24] the authors proposed PatchGAN. The proposed model rather than classifying the whole im-

age attempts to classify the $N \times N$ path of each image and seek the average scores of patches for obtaining the final score of the image. From the experiments it has been observed, for obtaining the high frequency details, it is sufficient to limit the discriminator to focus on the local patches.

Yoo et al. proposed an algorithm for supervised image-to-image translation, while having a secondary discriminator D_{pair} that evaluates whether or not a pair of images from multiple domains is related with each other. The loss of

D_{pair} is calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_{pair} = & -t \log[D_{pair}(X_s, X)] \\ & + (t-1) \log[1 - D_{pair}(X_s, X)], \\ s.t. t = & \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } X = X_t \\ 0 & \text{if } X = \hat{X}_t \\ 0 & \text{if } X = X_{\bar{t}} \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where the input image from the source domain is represented by X_s and its groundtruth image is denoted by X_t in the target domain, an irrelevant image in the target domain is represented by $X_{\bar{t}}$. The generator in the proposed model transfers X_s into a single image \hat{X}_t in the associated domain. The authors proposed an efficient pyramid adversarial networks to generating synthetic labels based on target domains for road segmentation in remote sensing images. Zareapoor et al. proposed a semi-supervised adversarial networks for dataset balancing in mechanical devices. The authors integrate multi-instance learning into adversarial networks for human pose estimation. As the results show, the proposed model has high accuracy and fast performance. Shamsolmoali et al. to handle the imbalanced class problems, proposed a capsule adversarial networks based on minority class augmentation.

In, the authors proposed a general learning framework assign the generated samples to a distribution over a set of labels instead of a single label. The effectiveness of their proposed model is proved through a set of experiments. Zhang et al. proposed DRCW-ASEG method in order to generate synthetic examples for multi-class imbalanced problem. The authors shown that their proposed strategy is able to improve the classification accuracy.

there is no noise input in the generator of pix2pix. A novelty of pix2pix is that the generator of pix2pix learns a mapping from an observed image y to output image $G(y)$, for example, from a grayscale image to a color image. As a follow-up to pix2pix, pix2pixHD [61] used cGANs and feature matching loss for high-resolution image synthesis and semantic manipulation. With the discriminators, the learning problem is a multi-task learning problem. Chrysos et al. [8] proposed robust cGANs. Thekumparampil et al. [60] discussed the robustness of conditional GANs to noisy labels. Conditional CycleGAN [39] uses cGANs with cyclic consistency. Mode seeking GANs (MSGANs) [40] proposes a simple yet effective regularization term to address the mode collapse issue for cGANs. GANs are also utilized to achieve image composition [33, 3, 69, 65], Based on cGANs, we can generate samples conditioning on class labels [45, 44], text [49, 22, 71]. In [71, 70], text to photo-realistic image synthesis is conducted with stacked generative adversarial networks (SGAN) [23]. cGANs have been used for convolutional face generation [15], face aging [1], multi-modal image translation [59, 75, 67], panoramic

image generation [14, 54], exemplar-based image synthesis [75, 72], synthesizing outdoor images having specific scenery attributes [25], natural image description [9], and scene manipulation [62]. Most cGANs based methods [11, 47, 51, 13, 55] feed conditional information y into the discriminator by simply concatenating (embedded) y to the input or to the feature vector at some middle layer. cGANs with projection discriminator [41] adopts an inner product between the condition vector y and the feature vector. Two-domain I2I can solve many problems in computer vision, computer graphics and image processing, such as image style transfer (f.) [76, 31], bounding box and keypoints [50, 68] which can be used in photo editor apps to promote user experience and semantic segmentation (c.) [46, 78], which benefits the autonomous driving and image colorization (d.) [56, 32], and domain adaptation [42, 6, 37, 66].. If low-resolution images are taken as the source domain and high-resolution images are taken as the target domain, we can naturally achieve image super-resolution through I2I (e.) [64, 74].

2.1.1 Multimodal Outputs

As shown in Fig.1, multimodal I2I translates the input image from one domain to a distribution of potential outputs in the target domain while remaining faithful to the input.

Actually, this multimodal translation benefits from the solutions of *mode collapse problem* [17, 2, 19], in which the generator tends to learn to map different input samples to the same output. Thus, many multimodal I2I methods [77, 4] focus on solving the mode collapse problem to lead to diverse outputs naturally. BicycleGAN [77] became the first supervised multimodal I2I work by combining cVAE-GAN [21, 29, 30] and cLR-GAN [7, 12, 13] to systematically study a family of solutions to the mode collapse problem and generate diverse and realistic outputs.

Similarly, Bansal et al. [4] proposed PixelNN to achieve multimodal and controllable translated results in I2I. They proposed a nearest-neighbor (NN) approach combining pixelwise matching to translate the incomplete, conditioned input to multiple outputs and allow a user to control the translation through on-the-fly editing of the exemplar set.

Another solution for producing diverse outputs is to use *disentangled representation* [7, 20, 26, 10] which aims to break down, or disentangle, each feature into narrowly defined variables and encodes them as separate dimensions. When combining it with I2I, researchers disentangle the representation of the source and target domains into two parts: domain-invariant features *content*, which are preserved during the translation, and domain-specific features *style*, which are changed during the translation. In other words, I2I aims to transfer images from the source domain to the target domain by preserving *content* while replacing

style. Therefore, one can achieve multimodal outputs by randomly choosing the *style* features that are often regularized to be drawn from a prior Gaussian distribution $N(0, 1)$. Gonzalez-Garcia et al. [16] disentangled the representation of two domains into three parts: the *shared* part containing common information of both domains, and two *exclusive* parts that only represent those factors of variation that are particular to each domain. In addition to the bi-directional multimodal translation and retrieval of similar images across domains, they can also transfer a domain-specific transfer and interpolation across two domains.

3. Conclusion

We find out that taking models trained with $z \sim N(0, I)$ and sampling from a truncated normal boosts IS and FID. Truncation trick: truncating a z vector by resampling the values having a magnitude greater than a chosen threshold. It leads to a better quality images in the cost of overall sample variety. The smaller the threshold, the smaller sample variety. where W is a weight matrix and β is a hyperparameter set to $1e-4$. They notice some of their larger models do not benefit from truncation trick. Therefore, they introduce Orthogonal Regularization due to which 60% of larger models became amenable to truncation. So, this wraps up our discussion of GauGAN’s architecture and its objective functions. In the next part, we talk about how GauGAN is trained and how does it fare as compared to its rival algorithms, especially its predecessor Pix2PixHD. Till then, you can checkout the GauGAN web demo, which allows you to create random landscapes. We see that the noise vector z is first split into equal size chunks. First, we take the very first chunk ($zs[0]$) as input and the rest chunks are used for concatenation with our class conditional vector y . After that we iterate over our ResBlock (self.blocks), as well as concatenated vectors, and pass our parameters. The final output is obtained by passing through batchnorm-relu-conv and tanh. Looks pretty simple, right? Now let’s see what happens inside our BatchNorm blocks. We see that our concatenated vector y is passed into self.gain and self.bias which are just Linear layers. So, vector y is linearly projected to produce per-sample gains and biases for the BatchNorm layers of the block. The bias projections are zero-centered, while the gain projections are centered at 1. Therefore, we add 1 after we apply self.gain. Finally, after we normalize our input x , we multiply it by our computed gain and add bias. Some Last Words I hope I help someone understand the concepts of BigGAN better. Anyways, my articles are just to introduce you to the concepts. You can always read the paper and, of course, get more details from it. I encourage to study the paper on your own. This article provides a great amount of information so you the paper seem a little bit easier.

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